

Crossover from Scale-Free to Spatial Networks

Marc Barthélemy

CEA, Service de Physique de la Matière Condensée
BP12, 91680 Bruyères-le-Châtel, France

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In many networks such as transportation or communication networks, distance is certainly a relevant parameter. In addition, real-world examples suggest that when long-range links are existing, they usually connect to hubs—the well connected nodes. We analyze a simple model which combine both these ingredients—preferential attachment and distance selection characterized by a typical finite ‘interaction range’. We study the crossover from the scale-free to the ‘spatial’ network as the interaction range decreases and we propose scaling forms for different quantities describing the network. In particular, when the distance effect is important (i) the connectivity distribution has a cut-off depending on the node density, (ii) the clustering coefficient is very high, and (iii) we observe a positive maximum in the degree correlation (assortativity) which numerical value is in agreement with empirical measurements. Finally, we show that if the number of nodes is fixed, the optimal network which minimizes both the total length and the diameter lies in between the scale-free and spatial networks. This phenomenon could play an important role in the formation of networks and could be an explanation for the high clustering and the positive assortativity which are non trivial features observed in many real-world examples.

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Even if some networks are defined without any reference to an embedding space, it is not the case for most real-world networks. Most people have their friends and relatives in their neighborhood, transportation networks depend obviously on distance, many communication networks devices have short radio range [1–3], and the spread of contagious diseases is not uniform across territories. A particularly important example of such a spatial network is the Internet which is defined as a set of routers linked by physical cables with different lengths and latency times [4]. From these examples, it appears important to define a realistic model in which nodes and links are embedded in a physical space which induces a distance between nodes, and we will designate these networks as ‘spatial’. More generally, the distance could be another parameter such as a social distance measured by salary, socio-professional category differences, or any quantity which measures the cost associated with the link formation. If the cost of a long-range link is high, most of the connections starting from a given node will link to the nearest neighbors. When a long-range link is existing, it will usually connect to a well-connected node—that is, a hub. This is for instance the case for airlines: Short connections go to small airports while long connections point preferably to big airport (*ie.* well connected nodes). This propensity to link to an already well connected node has been coined preferential attachment [5,6]: The probability to link to a node is proportional to the connectivity of it. It is widely accepted that preferential attachment is the probable explanation for the power-law distribution seen in many networks [6]. However, even if this process generates reasonably realistic networks, it misses the important element of the cost of links. We will study

a simple model which incorporates such a cost with a typical scale r_c .

Several models including distance were previously proposed [7–14] but the case of preferential attachment with a finite scale r_c was not considered before and more generally, the study of the interplay between preferential attachment and distance effects is still lacking. In this Letter, we study this interplay and we demonstrate the existence of a crossover from the scale-free network to the spatial network when the interaction range decreases. In particular, we propose scaling forms for the different quantities which characterize the network.

The N nodes of the network are supposed to be in a d -dimensional space of linear size L and we will assume that they are distributed randomly in space with uniform density ρ . One could use other distributions: For instance in cities the density decreases exponentially from the center [15]. The case of randomly distributed points is interesting since on average it preserves natural symmetries such as translational and rotational invariance in contrast with lattices. For the sake of simplicity, we will choose for our numerical simulations the two-dimensional plane and the Euclidean distance. Once the nodes are distributed in this space, we have to construct the links and we use the following algorithm: (1) Select at random a subset of n_0 initial active nodes. (2) Take an inactive node i at random and connect it with an active node j with probability (up to a normalization factor)

$$p_{i \rightarrow j} \propto \frac{Z(k_j)}{\Delta(d_{ij})} \quad (1)$$

where k_j is the connectivity of node j , d_{ij} is the distance between nodes i and j , and Z and Δ are given

functions. Finally (3), make the node i active and go back to (2) until all nodes are active. For each node, we repeat m times the steps (2–3) so that the average connectivity will be $\langle k \rangle = 2m$ (numerically we choose $m = 3$). There are essentially three different interesting cases: (i) *Preferential attachment*: When $Z(k) = k + 1$, and $\Delta = \text{const.}$, we recover the usual preferential attachment problem [6]: The connectivity distribution is a power law with exponent $\gamma = 3$, the shortest path ℓ is growing with N as $\ell \sim \log N$, the assortativity is decreasing as $\log^2 N/N$ [16], and the clustering coefficient is decreasing as $1/N$ [17]. (ii) *Distance selection*: In this case $Z = \text{const.}$: There is a distance effect only [2,10–12]. Jost and Joy [12] studied different functions $\Delta(d)$, Dall and Christensen [10] studied graphs in which each vertex is randomly located and connected with its adjacent points, while in [11], the authors study a (small-world) network constructed from re-wiring links with a probability that decreases as a power-law with distance. (iii) *Preferential attachment and distance selection*: It is the case where $Z(k) = k + 1$ and Δ is a increasing function of the distance. In most cases—such as transportation networks or social interactions—the range of interaction is limited, which is explained by the fact that there is a cost associated to long range links. Up to our knowledge, studies done so far in this case were concerned with the case where Δ decreases as a power-law [13,14,7]. The main result is then the existence of different regimes according to the value of the exponent describing the spatial decay of Δ . In contrast, in this Letter we will study the finite-range case for which the function Δ is negligible above a finite scale r_c , a prototype being the exponential function

$$\Delta(d) = e^{d/r_c} \quad (2)$$

Even if there is some controversy on the spatial decay of the linking probability for Internet cables [4,7], it seems that the range is relatively short and that when a new server (or router) adds to the network, it will connect preferably to the nearest node(s). One of the most important model of Internet topology relying on this argument and using Equ. (2) is the Waxman topology generator [18] and the model considered here thus appears has the natural generalization of the Waxman case.

When the interaction range is of the order of the system size (or larger), we expect the distance to be irrelevant and the obtained network will be scale-free. In contrast, when the interaction range is small compared to the system size, we expect new properties and we would like to understand the crossover between these two regimes as well as the scaling for the different quantities describing the network.

Probability distribution. We did simulations for this model and as expected, when $\eta \equiv r_c/L$ is larger than one, the distance selection is in-operant and we recover

the usual scale-free network obtained by preferential attachment. In particular, the probability distribution is a power law with exponent $\gamma = 3$ independently of the actual value of η (not shown). In the opposite situation $\eta \ll 1$, the distance is relevant and we expect a cut-off in the (one minus the) cumulative connectivity distribution

$$F(k) \sim k^{-\gamma+1} f\left(\frac{k}{k_c}\right) \quad (3)$$

where k_c is the cut-off at large connectivity: $f(x \gg 1) \simeq 0$ (see figure 1a). In this problem, we have two dimensionless parameters: The number of nodes N and η . Our guess—a posteriori verified—is that the control parameter is the average number of points present in a sphere of radius r_c (and of volume $V_d(r_c)$) as given by $n = \rho V_d(r_c)$. We thus propose the following scaling ansatz for the cut-off valid only for $\eta \ll 1$

$$k_c \sim n^\beta \quad (4)$$

In order to test these assumptions, we first plot the cumulative distribution for different values of N , r_c and L for $d = 2$ (see Fig. 1b). We then use our scaling ansätze (3),(4) and we indeed obtain a good data collapse (Fig. 1c) with $\beta \simeq 0.13$. According to these results, the distance effect limits the choice of available connections thereby limiting the connectivity distribution for large values. More generally, the distance effect induces correlations which are known to affect the connectivity distribution [19].

Clustering coefficient. The clustering coefficient C is defined as the average over all nodes of the percentage of existing links between neighbors [20]. For the scale-free network C is small and decreases as $1/N$. In contrast, when the distance effect is important we expect a higher cluster coefficient. Indeed, if two given nodes i and j are connected it means that the distance d_{ij} is less or of the order of r_c . In the process of adding links, if a new node k links to i , it means also that $d_{ki} < r_c$. This implies that j and k belongs to the disk of center i and of radius r_c . The probability that k and j will link will depend on the distance d_{jk} . When we can neglect the preferential attachment and if we suppose that a given node is connected to all its neighbors, the probability that k is also linked to node j is given in terms of the area of the intersection of the two spheres of radius r_c centered on i and j respectively. This is a simple calculation done in [10] and predicts that for $d = 2$ the clustering coefficient is $C_0 = 1 - 3\sqrt{3}/4\pi \simeq 0.59$. We expect to recover this limit for $\eta \rightarrow 0$ and for an average connectivity $\langle k \rangle = 6$ which is a well-known result in random geometry [21]. If η is not too small, the preferential attachment is important and induces some dependence of the clustering coefficient on N . In addition, we expect that C will be lower than C_0 since in our model the links don't connect necessarily to the nearest neighbors. We first compute

C versus the number of nodes N for different values of η (not shown) and the same data versus n (Fig. 2a) fall nicely on the same curve which is a decreasing function. In order to understand this variation, we consider one given node i_0 . When n is above 1 and increasing, the number of neighbors of the node i_0 will increase and the probability that two of them will be linked is thus decreasing which explains the monotonic decay of $C(n)$.

Assortativity. We also compute the assortativity A of the network which measures the correlation between the degree of the nodes. In this case, one way to measure this correlation is the Pearson correlation coefficient of the degrees at either ends of an edge [23]. This quantity varies from -1 (disassortative network) to 1 (perfectly assortative network) and is decreasing towards zero as $\log^2 N/N$ for the scale-free network. In the case $\eta \ll 1$, we compute the assortativity coefficient versus N and we plot the results versus n (Fig. 2b). The data fall onto a single curve and exhibit a maximum for $n \simeq 0.1$ where the network is also very clustered. In addition, this maximum is positive which indicates that the hubs are connected and not dispersed in the network. For very small n , the connectivity does not fluctuate and $A \simeq 0$ while for large n preferential attachment dominates and A is also small. This could be a possible explanation for the maximum observed in the intermediate regime where distance selection and preferential attachment coexist. It is interesting to note that the value of the maximum ($A_{\max} \simeq 0.2$) is in agreement with the empirical measurements for different networks [24] which give $A \in [0.20, 0.36]$. The cost of links thus induces positive correlations and could provide a simple explanation to the positive assortativity observed in social networks (actors, collaboration, or co-authorship). This fact is also very important from the point of view of the resilience of the network since it is very sensitive to the degree correlation [24]. In particular, for the scale-free network, deleting hubs when $A > 0$ is not as efficient when $A \simeq 0$ or $A < 0$ [25]. This means that for this type of networks, one has to adapt the best attack strategy to the value of the density.

Diameter. An important characterization of a network is its diameter ℓ [22]: It is the shortest path between two nodes averaged over all pairs of nodes and counts the number of hops between two points.

We propose the following scaling ansatz which describe the crossover from a spatial to a scale-free network

$$\ell(N, \eta) = [N^*(\eta)]^\alpha \Phi \left[\frac{N}{N^*(\eta)} \right] \quad (5)$$

with $\Phi(x \ll 1) \sim x^\alpha$ and $\Phi(x \gg 1) \sim \log x$. The typical size N^* is depending on η and its behavior is a priori complex. However, we can find its behavior in two extreme cases. For $\eta \gg 1$, space is irrelevant and

$$N^*(\eta \gg 1) \sim N_0 \quad (6)$$

where N_0 is a finite constant. When $\eta \ll 1$, the existence of long-range links will determine the behavior of ℓ . If we denote by $a = 1/\rho^{1/d}$ the typical inter-node distance, we have to distinguish two regimes: If $r_c \ll a$ then long-range links cannot exist and therefore $N \ll N^*$. If $r_c \gg a$, long-range links can exist and we are in a small-world regime $N \gg N^*$. This argument implies that N^* is such that $r_c \sim a$ which in turn implies

$$N^*(\eta \ll 1) \sim \frac{1}{\eta^d} \quad (7)$$

In Fig. 3a, we use the ansatz Equ. (5) together with the results Equ. (6), (7). The data are collapsing onto a single curve showing the validity of our scaling ansatz. This data collapse is obtained for $\alpha \simeq 0.31$ and $N_0 \simeq 180$ (for $d = 2$). The scale-free network is a ‘small’ world: the diameter is growing with the number of points as $\ell \sim \log N$. In the opposite case of the spatial network with a small interaction range, the network is much larger: To go from a point A to a point B , we essentially have to pass through all points in between and the behavior of this network is much that of a lattice with $\ell \sim N^\alpha$, although the diameter is here smaller probably due to the existence of some rare longer links (in the case of a lattice $\alpha = 1/d$).

Total cost and optimization. Finally, we compute the average per node of the distances of all links

$$S = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{links} d_{ij} \quad (8)$$

This quantity is a simple measure of the total cost of the network. For $\eta \ll 1$, preferential attachment is irrelevant and the links distance is essentially distributed according to $p(r) \sim \exp(-r/r_c)$ which leads to $S \sim L\eta$. In the opposite situation $\eta \gg 1$, only preferential attachment is important and the links distance is distributed according to $p(r) \sim d\pi^{d/2}r^{d-1}/\Gamma(d/2+1)$ which gives for $d = 2$ $S \simeq L\pi/6$ (figure 3b). When η is increasing the total cost is thus increasing while N^* is decreasing. This implies that for fixed N , the network which simultaneously minimizes the total cost and the average diameter (ie. with small N^*) is non-trivial and lies in between the ‘pure’ scale-free network (ie. without distance effect) and the ‘pure’ spatial network (ie. with no preferential attachment).

In summary, our results demonstrate the general importance of a cost in the formation of networks which induces a dependence of all quantities on the node density. In addition, the optimal network which minimizes both the total length and the diameter (at fixed number of nodes) will lie in between the scale-free and the spatial network. This result could thus provide a simple explanation to the large clustering coefficient and the positive correlations between node degrees as it is observed in

some cases where creating a long link is costly such as social or transportation networks for example.

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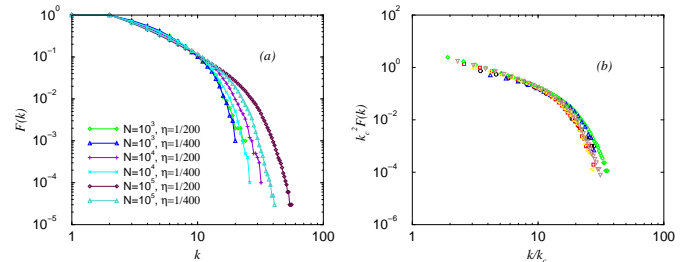


FIG. 1. (a) Cumulative distribution function for different values of N going from $N = 10^3$ to 10^5 and for η going from $1/400$ to $1/200$. (b) Data collapse for the same data of figure (a) with $k_c \sim n^\beta$ with $\beta \simeq 0.13$.

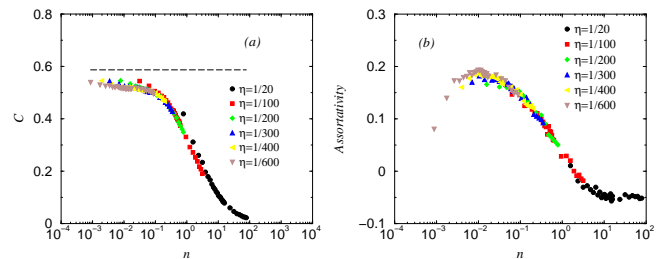


FIG. 2. Clustering coefficient versus the mean number $n = \rho\pi r_c^2$ of points in the disk of radius r_c (plotted in Log-Lin). The dashed line corresponds to the theoretical value C_0 computed when a vertex connects to its adjacent neighbors without preferential attachment [9]. (b) Assortativity versus n (in Log-Lin). This plot shows clearly a positive maximum for $n \simeq 0.1$. Around this maximum, the network will be resilient even to a targeted attack against hubs.

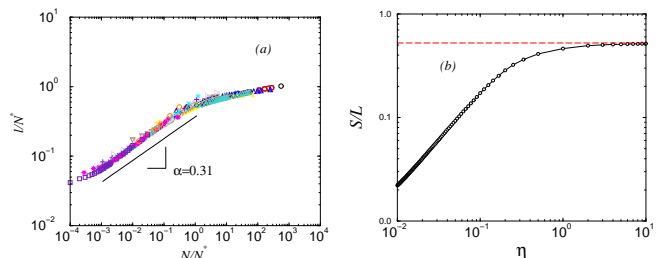


FIG. 3. (a) Data collapse (in Log-Log) for $\ell(N, \eta)$ using our scaling ansatz Equ. (5) together with Eqs. (6), (7). The data collapse is obtained with 14 curves for η going from $1/500$ to 100 and for N up to 10^5 . The first part of the scaling function exhibits a power law behavior with exponent $\alpha \simeq 0.32$, followed by a logarithmic behavior for $N/N^* \gg 1$. (b) Total length of the network per node (and per distance) S/L versus η going from $1/100$ to 10 . This cost is first linearly increasing with η and as the preferential attachment becomes more important it converges to $\pi/6$ (long-dashed line).